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ABSTRACT

The goal of integrating coping skills into the English as a second language (ESL) curriculum is to enable adults to use language in the real world. To accomplish this goal, two kinds of input are needed: (1) comprehensive knowledge about the workings of American English, and (2) accurate information about the language contexts in which adults need to function. The following three possibilities for syllabus design are discussed: situational, notional, and structural. Three criteria for materials evaluation and development are: (1) the language presented must be authentic; (2) the language dealt with must correspond to the language students need to use in the real world; and (3) the language must be presented to students in such a way as to allow them to internalize its underlying rules and thus enable them to generate language autonomously. The various components of language that need to be taught in ESL classes where oral communication is the goal are grammar, phonology, the nonverbal system (including cultural attitudes), and vocabulary items. A model lesson plan is described in which the behavioral objectives are to answer inquiries regarding one's address, telephone number, and social security number. A bibliography is included which suggests background reading and provides an annotated listing of some of the most promising ESL-coping skills-oriented materials presently or soon-to-be available. (SW)

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Teaching ESL for Communication Beyond the Schoolroom

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

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(Text of a speech presented to the Division of Adult Education, U.S. Department of Health Education and Welfare, February 2, 1979)

I have been asked to speak today on the subject of integrating coping skills into the English as a second language curriculum. It is a topic that I am happy to address here today for two reasons. The mere fact that it is a topic of current interest shows that the field of ESL has progressed enormously from where it was when I began working in it only nine years ago. And the fact that the Division of Adult Education has asked for a paper on this topic is an indication of the extent to which adult education is among a select few special interest groups leading the way toward language instruction which begins with the communication needs of the learners.

Let me begin this talk with a little bit of history: When I took my first graduate level ESL course nine years ago, I learned two very valuable things: 1) If you're going to teach ESL, you can never know too much about the language, and if you're good, you will never stop learning more about it. 2) You must be careful in planning a lesson to build on what the student already knows and try to add only one new thing at a time. In the past nine years, while those guiding principles have remained valid, the field of ESL has changed so much that their interpretation has had to change.

Changes in the field have taken place in two major areas, our ideas about language being one and our ideas about language

learning being the other. Beginning with language learning, research in first and second language acquisition has resulted in a different attitude about language learning. The behaviorist underpinnings which supported audio-lingual methodology and its assumptions that one learned a language simply by imitating correct forms supplied by the teacher and by avoiding incorrect forms by not taking chances, have been supplanted by a more cognitive approach, in which the learner is seen as taking a much more active role in the acquisition of language. The learner, presented with samples of language, infers rules and then generates new language on the basis of those rules. He is seen as an experimentor who learns not only when generating correct language but also by making mistakes; and instruction at its best works with the student and his language. This is quite different from the previous tradition, in which the teacher's role was to present a predetermined corpus of material, regardless of where the student was in his development with the language.

Many educators have moved from a curriculum-dominated mode of instruction to a student-centered mode. In terms of nationally-known school of thought, the Silent Way, originated by Caleb Gattegno is probably the most representative of this approach.

Another major contribution to our ideas about language learning and hence about second language methodology has come from humanistically-inclined psychologists and educators who

have pointed out that any approach that deals with a learner as a disembodied intellect will at worst fail or at best be less successful than one which recognizes and satisfies the learner's needs in the affective domain--needs such as feeling secure, being part of a community, being understood and appreciated by others. Counseling-Learning and Community Language Learning, models developed by Charles Curran, are well known for their contribution in this area. So, in the areas both of affect and cognition, ESL has come a long way from the strict, stimulus-response methodology which, for a long time, dominated the national language teaching scene.

Now, to address the other major area of change: What was our assumption about the nature of the language we had to teach, and how has that changed? Going back to that first ESL course I took, I learned that ESL instruction should concentrate on teaching grammatical structures and that there was a specific progression to follow which began with the verb to be in its various forms and with its various complements, which after a great deal of time included as a complement verbs ending in -ing; then after all of this was mastered, one moved on to other verbs in the simple present, and so on. If one wanted to do a really good job of teaching structure, to do it "the right way," one would stay on the verb be for at least two months--and that was

in an intensive course. The content of lesson plans for the first days looked something like this:

	STRUCTURES	EXAMPLES
DAY 1	NP (noun phrase) is ADJ (Adjective) He She	He is happy sad young old tall She
DAY 2	Is NP ADJ?	Is he happy?
	Yes, NP is	Yes, he is.
	No, NP isn't	No, he isn't.
DAY 3	(adjectives of nationality)	Is he French?
	He is = He's	Yes, he is. No, he isn't. He's Italian.
DAY 4	a NOUN	Is he a teacher? No, he isn't. He's a student.

Now, following these four lessons, students would typically have been given a reading passage something like this (which was modeled after a similar passage in a well-known and quite popular text):

> Vincent is a student. He is in class. Mary is absent. She is sick. John is absent. Is he sick? No, he is fine. Helen is a nurse. Kathleen is a teacher. She is in class. She is American. Helen is English. Sylvia is a secretary. Mary is a student. She is absent. Is she sick? Ann is a student. She is in class. Is Edward a student? No, he is a doctor.

After this, back to the curriculum for more:

	STRUCTURES	EXAMPLES
DAY 5	This is a _____.	This is a book.
	That's	That's a book.
	What's this?	What's this?
	It's a ____.	It's a book.
DAY 6	Who is he? Who's	Who's he?
	He's ____.	He's Mr. Smith.
		He's a teacher.

If any of this sounds a little strange or stilted to you, you have lots of company, because for the most part, these utterances are not representative of spoken English. Let's look at just a few of them.

Consider the last, (DAY 6) which runs, Who's he?
He's Mr. Smith.

The words are English. The grammar is perfect. The pronunciation is native. What's wrong? Imagine yourself at a conference. You notice somebody of interest whom you don't know and you turn to a friend to inquire. What do you say? Probably, Who's that? (Note, Who's he? or Who's she? are unlikely in this situation.) How is your friend going to answer? Let's say the name of the person in question is Joe Cody. You have asked, Who's that? And your friend will most likely say, Joe Cody, It's Joe Cody, or, if Joe Cody is really someone important to know, your friend may say, That's Joe Cody.

The language used in the lesson is not impossible in English; it is simply not used when the purpose of the communication is to make an initial inquiry as to someone's identity. We're likely to say, Who's he? when we mean Who does he think he is! or when a person's name has been introduced into a conversation as if everyone knew who he was when in fact this is not the case. What about the utterance, He's Mr. Smith? If we're talking about his being Mr. Smith in the school play, the language is appropriate; otherwise, as with the question Who's he?, it is an example of how correct grammar can be modeled in the classroom in ways that are never heard in the outside world.

Turning to the language involved in Day 5's lesson, we have a teacher standing in front of the room, holding up a book and asking the students, What's this? (This, by the way, is probably the most often repeated scene in the ESL classroom.) Now, if there had been a strange object on her desk, this question might be appropriate. However, given the reality that she knows what it is, the question is just a bit absurd. Why does she ask it? The chances are slim that the students have any doubt about the identity of the object which we call book in English. And, as Widdowson points out in his book, Teaching Language as Communication, when the point is not to establish the identity of an object, but to provide the English word for it, the appropriate utterance is not, This is a book. but The English word for this is book. or This is called 'a book' in English.

Obviously, teachers and materials developers who have filled ESL classrooms everywhere with language like, This is a nose, or better yet, --and these examples come from popular textbooks-- This is my nose. That is your nose, have not deliberately set out to misrepresent the English language to nonnatives attempting to learn it. In all good faith, they have sought to represent the most systematic aspects of the language--particularly its grammatical structures which, in fact, must be internalized if a learner is going to generate sentences of his own. The truth is that people simply didn't think much about language use until recently. What counted was correct usage. And if anyone did think about language use, it was somehow assumed that once the learner acquired the grammatical information needed to generate English sentences, the rest would take care of itself. He would somehow figure out by himself the sociolinguistic variables that made utterances appropriate or not, and he would, of course, know that many of the models in his textbook were not intended to provide reliable sociolinguistic data.

And so the books went on, and the teachers using them went on, proliferating language models whose sole purpose was to reveal the operation of a set of grammatical rules and which showed nothing about how people communicate in English; which is to say, they ignored the sociolinguistic rules which are as much a part of a language as are its grammatical or phonological rules.

From the mid-seventies onward, however, we began to hear more and more from sociolinguists, and books on language and language teaching began to address themselves more and more to the functions and contexts of language. Classroom texts lagged behind scholarly works, although in this country there was one notable exception which, as early as 1975, represented authentic language in a beginning level reader for adults.

This year was also about the time that the Adult Performance Level Study, conducted by Norvel Northcutt and a team of researchers at the University of Texas, began impressing adult educators with the fact that instructional goals in all of the curricular areas had to be attached to reality. And, thanks to this study and to the efforts of adult educators, it is now generally agreed that the goal of adult education is to enable adults to perform real life functions.

If we are committed to enabling adults to perform in real life functions, it follows that we have no choice but to look at the real life language needs of adults. And thus, we arrive at a competency based approach to ESL instruction, which is likely to have a very profound influence on English as a second language instruction in this country.

Instructional planning which considers not only the English language per se but the particular uses to which non-English speaking adults need to put the language has become our objec-

tive. Needless to say, the implications of this in terms of the amount of work that needs to be done are staggering--developing reliable needs assessment instruments; describing and analyzing the language used by native speakers for each assessed need; dealing with the linguistic content in such a way as to allow students to learn it. At the same time, we know that if we succeed, we will finally bridge the gap between what the non-English speaker needs in the real world and what he gets in class. And this is exhilarating.

Now that we have our work cut out for us, how do we fill the order? How do we go about preparing an ESL curriculum based on the life-needs of adult learners?

First of all, we need two kinds of input: 1) comprehensive knowledge of the workings of American English; and 2) an accurate picture of the language contexts in which the adults in our classes need to function. On the basis of this, it becomes possible to start identifying what language needs to be taught.

This is a very complex business, however; so before going ahead with the steps involved in planning a curriculum, I would like to take a few minutes to look at what is implicit in the first requirement: knowledge of the workings of American English. As speakers of English, or of any language, what are the elements of language that we have at our disposal to communicate with?

Probably the most immediate answer to this question would be, "words." Certainly, the lexicon of a language is a very important part of it. And English, in particular, is blessed with an enormous number of vocabulary items, exceeding that of all other languages. But knowing words is not knowing a language. We know that even if we give a non-English speaker a dictionary which allows him to find the English translations of the words he would use in his language, he will have a hard time communicating. Not only will he have difficulty finding equivalent words, he will have little idea of how to put them together.

If he has some idea of how we string words together in English, what endings we tack onto them, what combinations are grammatically possible, which elements are required and which are optional, which forms go with which other forms, then he knows something of English grammatical structure, and chances are he won't say, She turned on him when he means, She turned him on. or I'm seeing the postman when he means, I see the postman.

Now, assuming that a person has a pretty good command of English structure and a serviceable vocabulary, what else does he need? Among the most powerful communicators of meaning in English are the elements that comprise its sound system. You are probably well aware of the differences in sound between the individual vowels and consonants of English and those of other languages. Some of our English sounds, for example the vowel sound

in sit, are not found in most other languages. And so the distinctions we make between sit and seat or fit and feet are difficult for non-natives to hear and to produce. Consonant clusters such as the one at the end of the word taxed /kst/ are frequently difficult for students to pronounce. However, there are other areas of our sound system that most people are not as aware of and yet which are responsible for carrying a major portion of the message when we communicate.

Consider these examples in which a simple change in word stress completely alters the objective meaning of the utterance:

It's drinking WATER.
It's DRINKING water.

They're checking ACCOUNTS.
They're CHECKING accounts.

They're packing BOXES.
They're PACKING boxes.

Here is another example in which the same words in the same order can mean two completely different things:

Was that book difficult? (question)

Was that book difficult! (exclamation)

When the above examples are spoken aloud, the communicative intent of the speaker is carried by stress and intonation. In writing, this is accomplished through the use of different terminal punctuation.

Depending on the function of an utterance, stress and intona-

tion can vary widely:

(original statement)	There's a COW in my bathtub.
(You've got to be kidding!)	There IS a cow in my bathtub.
(Where did you say it was?)	There is a cow in my BATHTUB.
	etc.

A great deal more could be said about English phonology. However, for our purposes today, I hope that these examples have at least pointed to its importance in our oral communicative repertoire.

Another vital component of oral communication is non-verbal behavior which in its largest sense, extends beyond instances of face-to-face contact and which is, in fact, a reflection of all of the attitudes of a given culture. As such, it operates in such matters as our expectations of others with regard to time. In a culture such as ours where "time is money," punctuality is prized. Deviation from it is sufficient reason for a person to lose a job. In the same way, according to the rules of Anglo-American culture, a person kept waiting for an hour has a right to feel insulted by the person responsible. However, as anthropologist Edward Hall points out in The Silent Language, many other cultures do not have our sense of urgency with regard to time and would not only think nothing of being kept waiting an hour, they would not even expect the appointment to be kept!

In its application to face-to-face contact, non-verbal

communication encompasses everything from the physical distance that people maintain from one another in various situations to the subtlest facial expressions and gestures that they use in specific and culturally-determined ways. When it comes to non-verbal behavior, it is clear, as the proverb goes, that "one man's meat is another man's poison." Our non-verbal behavior is so thoroughly ingrained in us that we are usually unaware of what we are doing and also unaware that it is culture-specific. It is, thus, frequently responsible for misunderstandings among people of different cultures.

A very interesting area of difference among Anglo and Puerto Rican culture, which has been described by Carmen Judith Nine-Curt of the University of Puerto Rico, as the difference between monochronism (one thing at a time) and polychronism (many things at a time).

Among Anglos, people line up and wait. If a clerk is attending to a customer, it is appropriate for other customers to wait their turn. Even in social situations, Anglos will frequently refrain from interrupting a conversation in order to get the attention of a person they wish to speak to. In Puerto Rico, however, the clerk will deal with several customers at a time. And it is expected that you will be recognized by a friend or colleague even when he is actively conversing with someone else. As a result of this, Anglos think Puerto Ricans are pushy and Puerto Ricans think Anglos are aloof.

Another non-verbal communicator is eye-contact. In our Anglo society, people who maintain eye contact are considered sincere, straightforward, and generally trustworthy. In African cultures, however, certain situations require people to avert their eyes as a sign of respect and deference. Even in this country, a clear contrast can be seen between the behavior of ethnic Black children and that of Anglo children in response to a scolding given by the teacher. The Anglo child will dutifully look at the teacher during the scolding. The Black child, on the other hand, will very respectfully avert his eyes, looking downward and to the side. If the teacher is culturally aware enough to know that this is the Black child's way of showing respect, all is fine; however, it is, unfortunately, all too often the case that she will have read his non-verbal communication as an indication of his being sullen or insolent.

Instances such as this can be avoided only if we become consciously aware of the culturally-shaped attitudes which underlie and give meaning to our behavior, both verbal and non-verbal. Practitioners of ESL have always known that non-natives needed to learn the grammar, vocabulary and sounds of English. However, providing a non-native with these elements alone is like giving someone a message written in code and withholding the key to the code! Only through an understanding of Anglo-American culture can one become fully competent in the use of the language spoken by this group.

To summarize, then, the various components of language that need to be taught in ESL classes where oral communication is the

goal, they are: grammar (known in the ESL trade as "structure"); phonology; the non-verbal system (including cultural attitudes); and vocabulary items as needed.

Because they are finite and systematic, the phonological, grammatical and non-verbal rules of a language can be taught with relative efficiency. That is, for a relatively small investment of energy, the student can acquire the capacity to generate an enormous amount of language. Vocabulary, on the other hand, does not work this way. Each new word must be learned separately, and what is learned does not apply to any other word. Because vocabulary is so "costly," vocabulary items should be selected carefully. High-frequency words usable in a wide range of contexts should be chosen, the only exceptions being others that are, for some reason, indispensable to students' particular communication needs.

Where reading and writing are goals, and where students are already literate in a language that used a Roman alphabet, in addition to the above components, it is necessary to teach sound-symbol correspondences, spelling rules and exceptions to the rules, and the rhetorical and stylistic conventions characteristic of written English. Where students are literate but unfamiliar with the Roman alphabet, they need to learn how to write our letters as well as additional conventions such as leaving space between words, rules for capitalization, and punctuation. In cases where students are not literate in their own language, it is desirable to postpone reading and writing in English until they have acquired some degree of oral competence in the language. Reading

may profitably be taught in the native language before it is attempted in English.

What I have hoped to do in these last several minutes is to provide some background regarding what is involved in teaching a language per se so that we can now address the larger issue which is the whole purpose of today's talk: How to design a curriculum which teaches ESL within the framework of the real-life communicative needs of adult basic education students. Going back to two kinds of input necessary in order to do this, we have talked about the first, which was knowledge about the workings of the English language; now let us look at the second; knowledge of the contexts in which non-native adults need to function in English.

Some questions to ask in defining these contexts are: in what settings will the student have to speak, understand, read or write English? Specifically, what tasks will be performed? What will the funciton of each communicative act be? To request or give factual information? To express feelings? To suggest, persuade, or convince? To apologize? To socialize?, etc.? What topics will be involved: health, employment, shopping, personal information, etc.? What role will the student assume in each situation: friend to friend, stranger to stranger? Will the style of communication be intimate, familiar, businesslike or formal?

Even if we restrict the range of possible situations to those in which the adult has to deal with the world outside of his home,

using the most neutral communicative style and carrying out the most predictable language functions, we are faced with a task like counting grains of sand at the seashore if we attempt a comprehensive inventory of all of the situations he is likely to find himself in.

It is extremely helpful, in fact, necessary, to use as a starting point an inventory of the most typical situations in which competence in English is critical to adults, and to "flesh out" each situation so that the language involved is authentic, given the purpose of communication, the topic, the setting, the relationship of the interlocutors and the medium and style of communication. This will provide us with a corpus of material from which to plan a curriculum. However, if the student is going to become autonomous in his use of English, each lesson will have to contribute to the kind of knowledge that he can apply, in geometric proportions, to other contexts. This will not happen if his lessons consist of memorizing dialogues which are bound to specific situations.

What are the alternatives to this? There are two, basically. While using our real language core of typical situations as the point of departure, we can order the material in such a way as to facilitate the acquisition of the elements of the linguistic systems involved--structure, phonology, non-verbal communication. This would be called a <u>structural syllabus</u>. In a curriculum based on a structural syllabus, although there is a great deal

of latitude in the manner in which language is presented, the amount and nature of new linguistic input in each lesson is very carefully controlled so that students can devote their energies to internalizing and gaining autonomy in the use of the new items. For beginning level students, especially, this is highly desirable.

The other alternative is a relatively new concept which was developed in England and in Continental Europe in the last several years and which is, on a theoretical level at least, one of the "hottest" items in the field of ESL. It is referred to by a few different names; but most often, notionalism or functional-notionalism. At the present time there are no notionally-based published materials in the U.S.; however, we will be seeing some toward the end of the year. Without going too deeply into the theory of notional syllabuses, I will read a paragraph from a book called Notional Syllabuses by A. Wilkins.

> ...it would be naive to think that the speaker is somehow linguistically at the mercy of the physical situation in which he finds himself. What the individual says is what he has chosen to say. It is a matter of his intentions and purposes.
>
> . . . . . .
>
> I may have gone into the post office, not to buy stamps but to complain about the non-arrival of a parcel, to change some money so that I can make a telephone call or to ask a friend of mine who works behind the counter whether he wants to come to a football match on Saturday afternoon. Making complaints is not...what one typically goes to a post office for. The making of requests, the seeking of information, the expression of agreement and disagreement can take place in almost any situation.
>
> (Notional Syllabuses, p. 17)

Wilkins would like to see instruction aimed at developing in students the kind of communicative flexibility whereby they could walk into a post office and do more than buy stamps. And he contends that rather than continue to organize language instruction around language forms (as in structural syllabuses) or around behavior which is specific to particular situations (as in situational syllabuses), we should consider the functions of language and the general concepts expressed by language and use these as the basis for our planning.

I would like to read a quote from A.J. van Ek, a pioneer in notional syllabus design, who was commissioned by the Council of Europe to plan a language syllabus which would serve the communication needs of adults in Europe:

> By means of language, people assert, question command, expostulate, persuade, apologize, etc. In performing such functions, people express, refer to or...handle certain notions. They will for instance, apologize for <u>being late</u>, for being late for a <u>party</u>, for being late for a party <u>yesterday</u>, etc.
>
> (The Threshold Level for Modern Language Learning in Schools p. 6)

Van Ek and others are suggesting that language courses ought to be based on language <u>functions</u> such as making assertions, asking questions, giving commands, persuading, apologizing, etc. and on <u>notions</u>, or concepts, which can be general (eg., time, space, quantity, etc.) or specific (occupation, health, entertainment). In a recent book, van Ek provides a detailed taxonomy of language functions and notions. The notion of time, for example, is broken down into twenty-five conceptual categories. Then cross-referenced with these taxonomies are the structures and vocabulary items which are most commonly used to express each function and notion listed.

Notionalism is a very exciting concept which is likely to revolutionize language teaching in the coming decade. However, it has not yet been widely enough applied to provide us with a ready-made system immediately usable in the adult education classroom. Most of its actual application to-date has been in the specialized area of English for science and technology; and the accounts of those who have worked with it in this area indicate that there are still some kinks to iron out. The major problem is still that while following a truly functional-notional syllabus, in which it is not possible to maintain careful grammatical control and incremental building of structures, students lacking basic competence in the handling of English structure do not have optimal conditions in which to acquire this essential component of the language. For this reason, a strictly notional approach is, for the time being, only realistic for high intermediate and advanced students of ESL. At beginning and low intermediate levels, a structural syllabus is probably the soundest basis for instruction. However, this structural approach can certainly be "enlightened" by directing students' attention to particular language functions and notions as soon as they have sufficient control of the formal (i.e., grammatical) prerequisites for this.

Drawing on the foregoing discussion of what is involved in acquiring a language and possible schema around which to organize language instruction, I would now like to make explicit some criteria for evaluating or planning ESL materials designed for adult basic education students:

1) The language represented in the materials must be

authentic. That is, in the case of spoken dialogue, the interchange must be natural-like and not stilted. Differences in the written and oral language must be reflected. For example, the way in which a person's age is elicited on the personal information section of an application form is quite different from the way this is done in speech. On the application form, we see the word Age followed by a blank. In speech, one doesn't say to a person, Age but, How old are you? or in certain, rather official contexts, What is your age?

2) In addition to being authentic, the language selected for inclusion in the materials should be of value to the student with regard to the communicative settings in which he needs to use the English language. And it should also "count for something" in terms of contributing to geometric growth in his overall command of the language.

Primary attention should be given to the systematic aspects of the language. In oral language, this would mean grammatical structure, phonology and non-verbal communication. Vocabulary items selected for inclusion should, as much as possible, occur in the language with high frequency and be applicable in a wide range of settings. A great deal of the vocabulary involved in reading a restaurant menu, for example, is limited to the restaurant context and, in fact, is frequently limited to the particular menu of a particular restaurant. Before planning lessons devoted to this kind

of vocabulary, one really has to ask whether this is the best way to spend students' time. A great many students may not particularly care to invest time in developing special competence in the context of American foods because they associate food with their own language and prefer their own national cuisine to ours.

As a general rule of thumb, before indulging students in any "luxury" vocabulary (i.e., vocabulary of limited applicability), it is wise to find out from them which specific content areas are important to them. This is probably most easily done by means of a survey in their native languages. (A survey such as this was developed by my colleague, Jean Bodman, and myself at the Jersey City State College Adult Education Resource Center and copies are available in eighteen languages. Sixty-six topics in the content areas of occupational knowledge and consumer awareness are included.)

3) Finally, once the corpus of language to be taught has been identified, it must be ordered, presented and practiced in such a way as to facilitate learning. It is beyond the scope of this talk to discuss classroom methodology in any depth; however, a significant variable affecting what can be done in a classroom is the amount of new linguistic input in each lesson. If a dialogue involving several new structures and new vocabulary words is presented to students,

what can they do with it? They can probably repeat each line after the teacher. They can even memorize each line. However, if the goal is to build in students the capacity to use the systems of English to generate their own utterances, this will not happen if they are flooded with more new material than they can actively experiment with and internalize.

"Flooding the students," as I call it, is the major reason why in so many classrooms the teacher and maybe one or two students, are the only ones talking and, if the other students talk at all, it is the result of being led and prodded into a dutiful repetition of a model provided by the teacher or one of the "smart" students. Students aren't usually silent because they choose to be but because they have been put in a rather helpless position by a teacher who simply has no idea of how much is involved in the language she has expected them to deal with.

In a beginning math class, starting with students who could not perform the simplest computations, no teacher would plan a lesson which required multiple digit computations in addition and subtraction with carrying over and borrowing and then throw in a little multiplication and division for variety, perhaps with a few fractions on the side. This doesn't happen in math because it is easy to be aware of what is involved in each operation. It happens, unfortunately, in language teaching because the rules involved

in producing language are almost always out of consciousness. The field of ESL has been particularly affected by this problem because, until recently, it was assumed--and in some circles it is still assumed--that the only preparation a person needed to teach ESL was to speak English, and that the ideal preparation was to be bilingual.

There is no doubt that speaking English is a prerequisite for teaching it; there is also no doubt that it is useful to know more than one language--if for no other reason than the perspective this provides. However, unless the English speaker has raised to conscious awareness all of the myriad rules that underlie competence in the language, the only real service he can provide a non-English speaker is to converse with him. Opportunities for real interaction with native speakers are not to be disparaged; and, in fact, people have for centuries learned language just through extensive contact with native speakers. However, the purpose of a language class is to accelerate the language acquisition process and to provide students with the kind of information and opportunities for practice that they are unable to get on their own. To this end, the ESL teacher needs more than the ability to speak English. To this same end, materials which are designed for beginning and low-intermediate students need to be far more carefully prepared than is generally the case with even regular ESL materials, let alone ESL materials with a coping skills focus, where the amount of new vocabulary is often staggering.

To summarize these criteria, materials for beginning and intermediate level adult ESL students should be aimed at preparing them to function in the real world. In working toward this goal, it is necessary to single out certain life situations as particularly important; and a major purpose of instruction will likely be to prepare students for communication in such specific situations as reporting an emergency, describing symptoms to a doctor, inquiring about a bus schedule and so on. However, it is also critical that we prepare them to function with autonomy in the real world. This means that the language involved in the specific situations should be learned in such a way that the student is able not only to understand or produce the utterances designated in the material, but to apply the rules underlying the production of these specific utterances to contexts beyond these.

How, then, are ESL/coping skills materials ideally conceived? Assuming that the required coping skills have been identified, they can be grouped into two categories: 1) those which involve actual linguistic performance in English, (reading, writing, speaking or understanding); and 2) those which involve knowledge or awareness but not performance (in English). (eg., knowing the advantages and disadvantages of buying on credit,) Coping skills which involve linguistic performance (eg., filling out an application; responding orally to personal information questions) can be set as behavioral objectives per se; whereas those which involve knowledge or awareness can be used as topics for discussion or contexts for language practice. In both cases, meticulous planning is required.

To give an example of the planning involved, I would like to describe a small section of some work I have been doing in preparing a model lesson plan in which the behavioral objectives are to answer inquiries regarding one's address, telephone number and social security number. These three questions cluster nicely, not only because they are frequently asked in the same context, but because they can be asked and answered with much the same language elements. They are usually elicited by means of the same question, What's your _____? and the answers to all involve the use of numbers. Yet, even within these limitations, a careful analysis of the language involved in answering these three questions reveals that there is an enormous amount of language to be learned.

Consider the following answer to What is your address?

(WRITTEN)	(SPOKEN)
818 21st Street Union City, N.J. 07087 apt. 2B	Eight eighteen twenty-first Street Union City, New Jersey, apartment two B The zip is oh seven oh eight seven.

Assuming our goal is not limited to enabling the student to give only the above address, but to generate any address in English, what linguistic knowledge is necessary?

1) the names of cardinal numbers from one to nine thousand and the name oh for zero.

2) the knowledge that in pronouncing house numbers we cluster them as follows:

818 eight | eighteen
8118 eighty-one | eighteen
820-18 eight twenty | eighteen

special cases

801 eight oh one
800 eight hundred
8000 eight thousand
8200 eighty-two hundred

3) the knowledge that in giving a zip code, each number is pronounced individually

4) the names of the ordinal numbers from first to two hundredth

5) vocabulary

address
street
avenue
(boulevard, etc.)
apartment
zip

6) structure

What is your _____?

The ____

____ is __ __.

7) Rules of sentence stress and intonation for WH questions and statements.

This analysis shows us that there is far too much new material to attempt in a single lesson. All of it is extremely valuable and worth learning, but it must be broken down. How?

In working on the model lesson mentioned earlier, I encountered precisely this problem. I had to break down the material into manageable chunks but I still wanted to base instruction on real language. This is what I did: Just as I had written out a complete analysis of the language involved in giving an address, I had done the same for telephone and social security numbers. In looking at these latter areas, I noticed that they required a lot less language than addresses. In both cases, only the cardinal numbers from one to nine plus oh for zero needed to be learned; in both cases, special

pronunciation rules clustering of numbers was not a problem, as they are pronounced one by one.

So, I did the obvious and set up an instructional sequence which started with telephone numbers, then moved to social security numbers where the same numbers could be practiced. By this time, I had noticed that zip codes, also, could be given with these numbers; and by working on zip codes before tackling whole addresses, it was possible to lighten the learning load that students would encounter later with addresses. At this point, then, students would still need to learn the cardinal numbers from eleven to nine thousand and the ordinals from first to two hundredth. Looking at these numbers, I knew that it was not necessary to acquire each one as a separate entity. There are systematic rules that allow all of these numbers to be generated on the basis of a relatively small amount of input, For example, the names of all of the cardinal numbers up to nine thousand nine hundred ninety-nine can be generated on the basis of seventeen numbers. If one knows four, six, seven, eight and nine, on the basis of fourteen and forty, it is possible to generate sixteen, sixty, sixty-four, etc. When systems like this are available in the language, the learner can multiply his linguistic competence by leaps and bounds. Yet very few materials attempt to tap this enormous resource.

Returning now to the other category of coping skills--those which involve knowledge but not performance in English, we find such topics as Anglo-American attitudes toward work, information about nutrition, and so on. In the absence of situationally-based behavioral objectives,

topics such as these can be used in many ways. Ideally, they would be used in conjunction with a particular linguistic focus which could be developed naturally with the coping skills topics. At best, topics are drawn upon for particular lessons because the language native speakers would use in talking about them is the kind of language that has been chosen as the instructional focus. As an example, I will describe another model lesson which was developed at the JCSC AERC. This lesson was designed to provide opportunities to use reported statements and questions. The coping skills focus chosen was the non-verbal behavior and attitudes that are looked for in job interviews. The model lesson began with a telephone conversation between a young man who had had a job interview that day and his mother. The mother wanted to hear all about the job interview, and after receiving a blow-by-blow account of it from her son, she then got on the phone to tell a friend all about it. In discussing the interview, the characters had to use reported speech and did so quite naturally:

> Anyway, the manager said that if Johnny thought that a part-time job in a supermarket was a joke, it wasn't. He said they they paid him a salary to do a job and that they counted on him to be there when they needed him...etc.

The interweaving of coping skill and linguistic skill continued throughout the lesson as students were led to observe and discuss another job interview, an unsuccessful one, and to compare that one to the successful interview. In order to do this, they had to use the targeted linguistic structures to talk about the targeted coping skill.

Summary

I was invited here today to speak on the topic of integrating coping skills into the ESL curriculum. However, it would have been meaningless to address this topic without discussing all of the important considerations which must enter into any serious attempt at defining the issues involved and making recommendations in this area. I have, therefore, run a risk with my audience that I have warned educators against: namely, flooding the listener with an overload of information. I hope that if this is the case, the following summary will be of some use to you in retrieving some of the points that may have been lost in the deluge!

I began my talk today with a discussion of the importance to ESL of the competency-based thrust which is being led by the field of adult education. Once we recognize that our goal is to enable adults to use language in the real world, we can hope, at least, that the language taught in the classroom bears a closer resemblance to the language actually used by native speakers than it has in the past.

If our goal is to teach the language that students need in the real world, we need two kinds of input: 1) comprehensive knowledge about the workings of American English; and 2) accurate information about the language contexts in which adults need to function.

Our knowledge of the language and of the aspects of the language that our students need to learn provides us with a corpus of material. The next problem is to decide how to organize and present that corpus. Three possibilities for syllabus design were discussed: situational, notional and structural.

Following this, three criteria for materials evaluation and development were offered: 1) The language presented must be authentic. 2) The language dealt with must correspond to the language students need to use in the real world. 3) The language must be presented to students in such a way as to allow them to internalize its underlying rules and thus to enable them to generate language autonomously.

Finally, examples of model materials judged to conform with these criteria were illustrated, and the thinking behind them was described. The bibliography accompanying this paper suggests background reading and provides an annotated listing of some of the most promising ESL-coping skills-oriented materials presently or soon-to-be available.

Having looked at language as communication and having looked at it as a set of formal systems, I would like to leave you with the thought that,above all else, English as a second language is the means whereby our students have the opportunity to enter mainstream society. Let us help those who wish to enter this society. And let us help them to function here with the autonomy of adults.

A Select Bibliography Pertinent to

Competency-Based ESL Curricula for Adults in the United States

by Susan C. Lanzano, 1979

BACKGROUND READING

Design for a Communicative ESL Curriculum

Mackay, Ronald and Alan Mountford, eds. English for specific purposes. London: Longman, 1978, 324 pp.

Munby, John. Communicative syllabus design. London: Cambridge U. Press, 1978.

Van Ek, J.A. The threshold level for modern language learning in schools. Strasbourg: Council of Europe, 1976. London: Longman, 1977, 165 pp.

Widdowson, H.G. Teaching language as communication. London: Oxford U. Press, 1978, 168 pp.

Wilkins, D.A. Notional syllabuses. London: Oxford U. Press, 1976, 92 pp.

Curriculum Content

Adult Performance Level Study Final Report. Austin: University of Texas at Austin Division of Extension, 1974.

Brown, Gillian. Listening to spoken English. London: Longman, 1977.

Greenbaum, Sidney, Geoffrey Leech and Jan Svartvik. A grammar of contemporary English. London: Longman, 1972, 1120 pp.

Leech, Geoffrey and Jan Svartvik. A communicative grammar of English. London: Longman, 1975, 324 pp.

Prator, Clifford and Betty Robinett. Manual of American English pronunciation. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1957, 250 pp.

Sociolinguistics

Fishman, Joshua. The sociology of language. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House, 1972, 250 pp.

Hall, Edward T. The silent language. Greenwich, Conn: Fawcett Publications, 1959, 192 pp.

Joos, Martin. The five clocks. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1961, 108 pp.

Nine-Curt, Carmen Judith. Non-verbal communication in Puerto Rico. Teacher training pack for a course in cultural awareness. Cambridge, Mass: National Assessment and Dissemination Center (NADC), 49 Washington Ave., Cambridge, Mass. 02140.

CLASSROOM MATERIALS

A Model from Great Britain

Abbs, Brian and Ingrid Freebairn. Starting strategies: an integrated language course for beginners. London: Longman, 1976.

Materials for Adults in the United States

Armstrong, Fiona, Myra Baum and Joan Miller.
Lifeworks: The real me and the world of work
Lifeworks: Realizing what's available in the world of work
Lifeworks: A realistic job search
Lifeworks: Really getting ready for the world of work
Lifeworks: The reality of work and promotion
New York: McGraw Hill, 1980 (expected).

Aimed at adult basic education classes, both native speaking and advanced ESL, this series of five books provides in-depth pre-vocational instruction. Each book deals with a different aspect of occupational knowledge. Broad categories are: getting to know yourself; finding a job matching your interests and abilities; finding out where the jobs are; looking for and applying for a job; legal and financial rights on the job.

Bodman, Jean and Michael Lanzano. No hot water tonight. No cold water, either. And the roof leaks too. New York: Collier Macmillan, 1975, 1979, 1980 (expected).

These three books (the second to be out later this year and the third in preparation) provide adults learning English as a second language with interesting readings and discussion topics. Language used throughout the materials is authentic; contexts portray urban life and center around those problems that adults have to deal with in coping with landlords, hospitals, store managers, etc., as well as around such intangibles as racism. This series makes a major contribution toward providing non-natives with valuable insights into American culture.

Bodman, Jean and Michael Lanzano. Milk and honey. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1980 (expected).

This is the first of ten books whose purpose it is to take the adult ESL student from no English to fluency. Materials are very carefully controlled in terms of structure and vocabulary. Target structures are demonstrated in the most natural language and settings. The linguistic content of each chapter is designed to capacitate students to perform particular coping skills, such as writing checks, listening to weather reports, and making emergency phone calls.

Carver, Tina Kassloff and Sandra Douglas Fotinos. A conversation book: English in everyday life. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1977.

Not intended as a basic course but as a supplement. Books 1 and 2 of this title cover a wide range of topics (chapter headings read: "Shopping, Employment, Health," etc.) and address issues such as racial attitudes in the U.S., environmental concerns and others. These materials gather together much of the language pertinent to these topics and can be used as a convenient reference for the teacher in planning lessons or as a book to "browse" in for advanced students. The quantity of vocabulary in each lesson and relative lack of control over structure limit its usefullness to students at beginning levels.

Chinatown Resources Development Center (Savage, K. Lynn, Ellen Lai-shan Yeung and Mamie How). Integrated competency-based bilingual vocational English as a second language.

The title tells all. Three cycles, each containing eight units (one unit takes approximately twenty hours) which focus on the grammar, vocabulary and cultural information beginning ESL students need for entry level employment. Cultural content, originally prepared with Asian students in mind, is presently being adapted for use with Hispanic students.

For information regarding availability, contact David Hemphill, Project Director, Chinatown Resources Development Center, 615 Grant Ave., 4th floor, San Francisco, California 94109.

Dresner, Joanne, et. al. It's up to you. New York: Longman, 1979 (expected).

An excellent analysis of all of the steps involved in finding and holding a job and strategies for succeeding in these areas provide the basis for this book. Designed for the intermediate to advanced student. Scheduled for fall, 1979 publication.

Gage, Julia and Lynne Stamoulis. Survival in an English-speaking world. English Language Learning Center, 13016 Greenwood Ave. N., Seattle, Washington 98133 (Federally-funded curriculum development project. Limited copies of materials may be available by fall, 1979.)

Materials are aimed at developing effective consumer behavior in adult ESL students. Learning activities are directed at familiarizing the student with important consumer knowledge and developing the linguistic and consumer skills necessary for successful interaction in American society.

Keltner, Autumn. English for adult competency. Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, 1980 (expected).

Originally developed under the California Adult Education Office, this was one of the first attempts at integrating ESL and coping skills for the general adult ESL population. Revised copy has not yet been reviewed, but look for Books 1 and 2 of this series in the next year or so.

Kimbrough, Victoria and Ocasr Castro. In touch. Ed. Lynn McLean. Longman: New York, 1979 (expected).

Three levels, the first of which is scheduled to appear on the market in June, 1979. Books II and III will follow three and six months later. This series will be the first large-scale implementation of the functional notional syllabus in the United States. Not specifically designed for adult basic education classes, many of the language functions developed in the series are, nevertheless, among the competencies needed by all adults. Aimed at a beginning level student who has had some exposure to English.

Morley, Joan. Improving aural comprehension. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1972. Student's Workbook 293 pp.; Teachers' Manual, 209 pp.

Many sections of this book provide students with opportunities for listening comprehension in useful life contexts, eg., listening to and recording telephone numbers; following directions, etc. The book is divided into units, each of which deals with a different concept (numbers, time, spatial relations, measurements, etc.) The beginning lessons in each unit are usable with beginning students; the later ones are quite advanced and deal with taking notes in college lectures.

National Indochinese Clearinghouse-Technical Assistance Center (NICTAC).

English for your job: prevocational.
English for your job: automechanics.
English for your job: food services.
English for your job: clerical.

Center for Applied Linguistics, 1611 N. Kent St., Arlington, Va. 22209
Available at $10.00 per title (to cover copying and mailing costs). Permission will be granted to programs to reproduce copies for student use.

The above titles constitute a series of vocationally-oriented supplementary modules which were developed by the staff of NICTAC for beginning level ESL students. Each module consists of ten lessons plus a teacher's guide and a bilingual (Vietnamese-English) glossary. They are designed to be used in conjunction with a general, sequenced ESL course. (experimental edition)

NICTAC is currently preparing intermediate vocational-ESL materials using a notional-functional syllabus. At the present time, prevocational and clerical modules are being developed.

A student-interest survey translated into eighteen languages prepared by Jean Bodman and Susan Lanzano is available from the Jersey City State College Adult Education Resource Center.

Also available is: Bodman, Jean and Susan Lanzano, "What ESL students want: a report of their opinions on coping skills in the classroom." 1978